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A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF RECRUIT TRAINING IN INDONESIAN NAV--ETC(U)

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A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF
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by

A. KUNTJORO

June 1978

Thesis Advisor:

R. A. McGonigal

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle)		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED
(6) A Process for Development of Recruit Training in Indonesian Navy		(9) Master's Thesis June 1978
7. AUTHOR(s)		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
(10) A. KUNTJORO		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS
Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS		12. REPORT DATE
Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		(11) June 1978
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)		13. NUMBER OF PAGES
(12) 86 P.		87
		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report)
		Unclassified
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)		
Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
Recruit Training Adjustment of Recruits Military Careers		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
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Unclassified

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE/When Data Entered

20. (continued)

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Unclassified

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE/When Data Entered

A Process for Development of Recruit Training in Indonesian Navy

A. KUNTJORO
Major, Indonesian Navy
M.S., Gajah Mada University, 1966

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
June 1978

Yours truly

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is no doubt that this thesis would never have been started, let alone completed, without the encouragement and generosity of Professor Richard A. McGonigal, Ph. D., my advisor. I wish to pay tribute to him for the debt I owe for both personal and professional guidance.

I would like to thank Professor John W. Creighton, Ph. D., my second reader, for his assistance and comments.

I would like to thank CDR James T. Fleming, USN, and LCDR Joseph D. Monza, USN, the curricular officers of the Department of Administrative Sciences, for their assistance while I have studied here.

I have greatly benefited from the facilities of the Naval Postgraduate School Library which has helped me in the research for preparation of this thesis.

I would especially like to thank my mother, R. NGT. Sumiyati Kardjoeni, for her prayers and encouragement.

Lastly, I would like to express my highest appreciation for my lovely wife, Aniek Troosminarti, as she has patiently taken care of our children, Anita, Wisnu, and Indra. I am deeply indebted to her for her love and for much more besides.

I. INTRODUCTION

No one doubts the contribution that training can make to development of all kinds. Training is essential, obviously so. The doubts come from its contribution in practice. Complaints are growing about its ineffectiveness and waste. The training apparatus and its costs have multiplied but not the benefits. Training has become like a tax levied on willing and unwilling alike. The contribution that training can make to development is needed acutely.

Much training now proceeds as if classroom knowledge and operational action were directly related. Lynton states the new concept of training:¹

1. Motivations and skills lead to action. Skills are acquired through practice.
2. Learning is the complex function of the motivation and capacity of the individual participant, the norms of the training group, the training methods and the behavior of the trainers, and the general climate of the institution. The participant's motivation is influenced by the climate of his work organization.

¹Rolf P. Lynton and Udai Pareek, Training for Development, 1967, p. 3-14.

3. Improvement on the job is a complex function of individual learning, the norms of the working group, and the general climate of organization. Individual learning, unused leads of frustration.
4. Training is the responsibility of three partners; the participant's organization, the participant, and the training institution. It has a preparatory (pretraining), and a subsequent (posttraining) phase. All are of key importance to the success of training.

Focusing training on skill in action make the task wide and complex.

Today, with pressure to reduce defense spending, a large percentage of the defense budget is devoted to personnel cost. The greatest challenge facing the military services is the effective utilization of its most precious resource people. The effective use of manpower has been and continues to be as elusive as it is important.

Cameron said, in the United States of America the military services turn over approximately 60 percent of its total personnel every two years.² Not only does this high turnover reduce readiness, but it is extremely costly in terms of recruiting and training. Billions of dollars are spent annually to train new men and women, and the military can ill afford the manpower losses caused by the failure or inability of large numbers of

²J. Cameron, "Our Greatest Military Problem is Manpower." Fortune, April 1971.

servicemen and women to accept and perform in their military roles. Because of this cost and the increasing need for well-trained personnel, the value of a thorough and efficient recruit training program cannot be overly emphasized.

Too few members of the military services understand the changing values and needs of the youth of today, and their difficulty in adjustment from civilian to military life. Men and women, new to the military, must be able to satisfy their needs and accomplish their goals with a reasonable amount of comfort.

In Indonesia deficiencies in the educational system tended to reinforce problems associated with a youthful, unemployed, or underemployed population having intermediate skills not readily suited to the demands of the economy. Indonesia has a large semiskilled or potentially skilled work force, and school and university graduates capable of managerial, business, and professional skills. Yet in the early 1970s a large proportion of the working-age population was unemployed or underemployed, and the majority were in their twenties.³

Enlisted manpower for Indonesian Armed Forces is derived entirely from voluntary enlistment based on selective criteria. Each of the services has women's units. Limited job opportunities in the civilian economy make enlistment attractive to many young men and women.

³ Nena Vreeland, et al Area Handbook for Indonesia, U.S. Government Printing Office Da pam 550-39, 1975, p. 420.

In 1970 officers were drawn entirely from graduates of the Armed Forces Academy with the exception of medical and other specialized personnel who were recruiting directly.

Indonesia, an "island nation," has many young people who must leave their villages and attend boarding schools at larger communities. These young people experience considerable dissonance as they go from the traditional to the modern.⁴

All of the above appears to parallel a great deal of what has happened to American youth in terms of social change. It thus seems appropriate to examine the U.S. training pipeline to observe what will be soon, if not already, happening as Indonesian youth experience the culture shock of military life.

With this in mind, this thesis will examine personal adjustment to a military environment, specifically recruit training. It will discuss problems encountered by persons attempting to adjust from civilian to military life at the recruit training level, and the development of recruit training.

Chapter II will present the organization and missions of the Indonesian Navy, and the objectives of the Education and Training of the Indonesian Navy. Chapter III will present the missions and environment

⁴David A. Andelman, New York Times, June 6, 1976, p. 10 (c. 4).

of Naval Training Centre in general, and then the factors that generally affect to training will be discussed in detail in further chapters. Chapter IX will discuss the process for development of recruit training and the possible approach for establishing a training system. Some recommendations will be suggested at the end of Chapter X.

II. THE ORGANIZATION AND THE MISSIONS OF THE INDONESIAN NAVY

A. THE ORGANIZATION

With the reorganization of the Department of Defense-Security in 1969, the Indonesian Navy became an organic component of the Department of Defense-Security. This reorganization established the Department of Defense-Security as the headquarters of the Indonesian Armed Forces consisting of the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Police.

In this organization the Minister of Defense-Security is also the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces.

The purpose of the reorganization was to integrate the Armed Forces in order to produce a more efficient and effective defense-security program.

Further, national defense-security was arranged in a mission type organization with the following characteristics:

1. one strategy
2. one unity of command
3. one budget policy

In the present national defense-security systems, the Indonesian territory is divided into six theater commands which are joint commands. Each theater command controls operational components of the Army, Navy, and Air Force. The Commander-in-chiefs of these theater commands are responsible directly to the Minister of Defense/Commander-

in-Chief of the Armed Forces. Thus, the Chief of Staff of the Navy has the mission to prepare naval elements for assignment to these theater commands.

Based on this mission, the Chief of Staff of the Navy manages the following components:

1. the Naval Headquarters,
2. the Naval Forces,
3. the Shore Establishments.

Specifically, the organization of the Indonesian Navy is as depicted in figure 1.

B. THE MISSIONS AND FUNCTIONS

As directed by the Minister of Defense-Security/Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, the Indonesian Navy has the following missions:⁵

"As an integral part of the Armed Forces and an organic component of the Department of Defense-Security, to maintain and to prepare itself to reach the highest degree of readiness in order to be able to exercise a dual function:

1. As a Naval Force in the national Defense-Security System, to guard the integrity of the Indonesian territory.

⁵ See KEPUTUSAN MENTERI PERTAHANAN-KEAMANAN / PANGlima ANGKATAN BERSENJATA Nomor : KEP / 11 / IV / 1976, 5 April '76.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE INDONESIAN NAVY
(simplified)

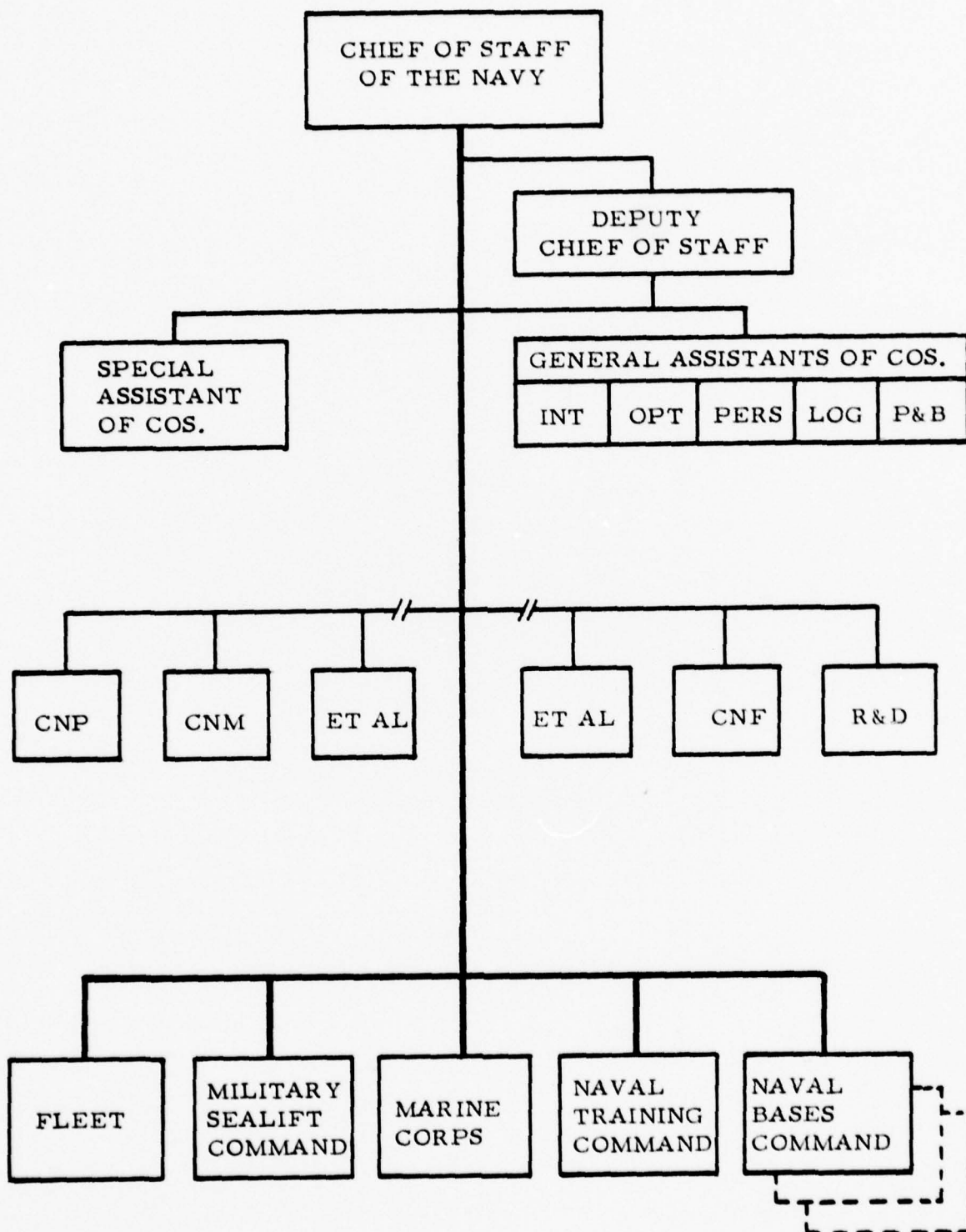


Figure 1

2. As a Social Force, to take an active part in the successful national development. "

Based on these missions, the Indonesian Navy performs the following functions:

1. Organizes, educates, trains, and equips Naval Forces.
2. Procures and maintains equipment.
3. Prepares the budget.
4. Develops tactics, techniques, and weapon systems.
5. Maintains security.
6. Prepares component forces including logistics and administrative support, for assignment to joint commands.
7. Participates in civic action programs and contributes to the Armed Forces mission of civil administrations.

As stated in the order of the Chief of Staff of the Indonesian Navy, the missions and objectives of the Education and Training of the Indonesian Navy are:⁶

1. To establish develop personnel in the Indonesian Navy that have spiritual strength as:
 - a. human beings that are fully dedicated to God,
 - b. human beings that are willing to support and defend PANCA SILA (the philosophical basis of the State).

⁶See, S. K. KASAL No. SKEP. 1552.2/IV/73 tanggal 11 April 1973 tentang "Sistem Pendidikan dan Latihan TNI-AL."

2. To create an environment that will be suitable for advancement of physical and mental development of the Navy personnel.
3. To establish cooperation among Navy personnel in solving problems, to develop a rational attitude and continuous adaptation to ecological conditions.
4. To develop skills and specialties necessary to produce qualified Navy personnel.

III. MISSIONS AND ENVIRONMENT OF NAVAL TRAINING CENTRE

A. MISSIONS

In order to be effective, a training program must be based on the "needs" of the recruit to be trained. Kirkpatrick states a simple definition of training needs would be:⁷ "What attitudes, knowledge, and skills do the recruits need in order to do their job effectively?" The initial exposure to military life occurs at recruit or basic training. Here the civilian begins the transition to military life.

Barber states,⁸ "... basic training is aimed as much at instilling certain attitudes, responses and loyalties in the new recruit as it is at teaching him specific skills". Snyder and Caylor⁹ pointed out in a recent study that the initial few weeks of active duty are extremely important, they are the soldier's first direct experience with military life, and they offer not only the first, but perhaps the best opportunity the military will have to instill the values and beliefs it considers important for effective service. This early experience represents the only experience enlisted men have in common. The nature of this

⁷ Donald L. Kirkpatrick, A Practical Guide for Supervisory Training and Development, 1971, p. 21.

⁸ J. A. Barber, Jr., The Military Services and American Society, The Free Press, 1972.

⁹ R. Snyder and J.S. Caylor, "Recruit Reactions to Early Army Experience," George Washington University, 1969.

experience is likely to have an important bearing on the entire subsequent performance of the individual.

In discussing the effects of basic military training on the attitudes of U.S. Air Force enlistees, Harburg said,¹⁰ "basic training, as the young man's introduction to the Air Force, provides the unique opportunity to turn on the young man to the possibilities of a satisfying existence in the organization he has chosen to join. In a time of political and military uncertainty, it is important we not forget the primary objective of basic training, to offer the young man a sense of purpose and positive direction into which he may channel his efforts."

Although basic combat training is an extraordinary experience, it has been an integral part of the culture. Most men of military age have a father or brother or uncle who has experienced basic training, and dramatic depictions occur with some frequency in movies and television along with some news documentaries.

B. ENVIRONMENT

The recruit or basic training environment is usually completely alien to anything a recruit has experienced before. All recruits entering recruit training encounter a number of psychosocial situations that they are unlikely to have experienced before, although they are not

¹⁰ F. D. Harburg, "The Effects of Basic Military Training on the Attitude of Air Force Enlistees," Scientific Research, 1971.

entirely unique to recruit training. Most trainees, whether conscripts or volunteers, approach this "rite of passage" with trepidation. According to Faris there are several features of basic training which make it extraordinary and which have persisted through the years and appear in much the same form from one post to another.¹¹

First, there is, at least initially, a disparagement of civilian status, which takes the form of degradation and humiliation on both the group and individual levels. Unflattering haircuts and glaring new, ill-fitting uniforms reduce personal dignity. The trainee's fear of authority and his ignorance of what is and what is not a legitimate order make him look and feel silly.

Second, basic training is characterized by extreme isolation from civilian society on the one hand and an almost complete lack of privacy from other trainees on the other. Contact with friends and relatives is much reduced, while at the same time it is almost impossible to be alone. In many basic-training barracks there are no partitions between the toilets. This is a feature of the experience with which many trainees have difficulty.

Third, much of the evaluation of performance in basic training is done at the group level rather than on the individual level. This

¹¹ John H. Faris, "The Impact of Basic Combat Training," The Social Psychology of Military Service, Sage, 1976, p. 14-15.

collective evaluation violates the trainee's sense of justice. This system is the source of many of the strongest complaints, although a minority of trainees perceive the function of such an approach- to develop teamwork and solidarity.

Fourth, basic combat training includes an emphasis on masculinity and aggressiveness. Expressed attitudes toward women are utilitarian and unromantic and tend to reinforce a sense of male superiority. The emphasis on masculine toughness combined with the threat of being labeled feminine is traumatic for insecure trainees.

Finally, basic training is designed to place the trainee under various forms of stress, both physical and psychological. There are other forms of physical stress; hunger, thirst (in field training), and sleep deprivation. Psychological stress has a number of sources. Fear of failure and the companion fear of being recycled (repeating part of basic training in another company) are among the most severe types of psychological stress, especially for marginal soldiers. Psychological stress is also generated intentionally by arbitrary and sometimes conflicting demands.

The above characteristics would seem to make basic combat training a highly negative experience, and certainly it is often perceived as negative by the trainees. According to Bourne,¹² the recruit training

¹²P. G. Bourne, "Some Observations on the Psychological Phenomenon Seen in Basic Training." Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 1967, p. 187-196.

process is fundamentally one of acculturation in which the recruit is subjected to a force change of reference group, and the skills he learns are basically those necessary for survival and successful adaptation under these circumstances. Recruit training lacks any great opportunity for excelling, and its existence is predicated on a future with which it has little continuity. The weeks at the training centre comprise, in effect, a temporal cocoon in which a phenomenal metamorphosis must take place. Marlowe said,¹³ "basic training stands outside the normal flow of time and is essentially ahistorical."

The functions of recruit training are depicted in figure 2.

¹³D. H. Marlowe, "The Basic Training Process," The Symptom as Communication in Schizophrenia, Grune and Stratton, 1959.

FUNCTIONS OF RECRUIT TRAINING

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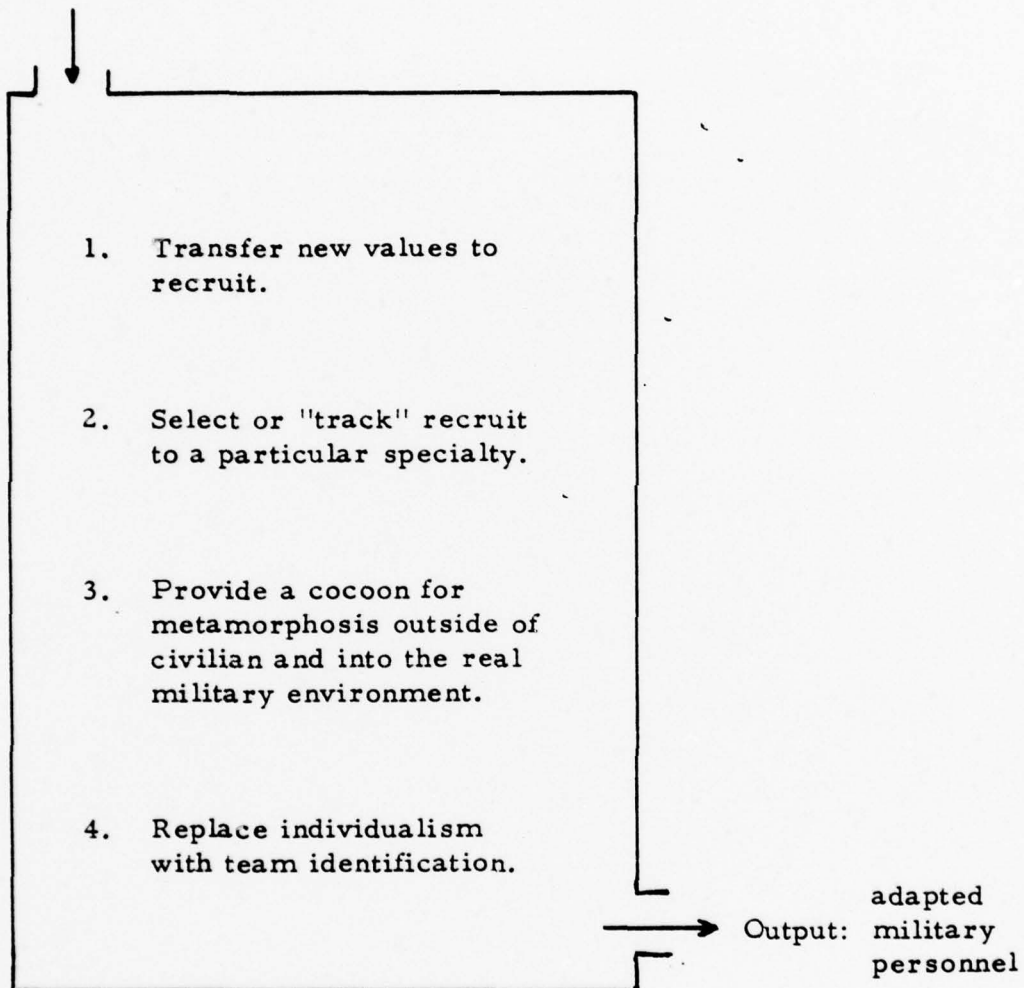


Figure 2

IV. PRE-RECRUIT TRAINING FACTORS

A. TODAY'S YOUTH

The military services are basically youthful in age structure. Lang,¹⁴ in a study of military rank structure trends, indicated that more than fifty percent of officer and enlisted personnel fell within the first three and four grades of rank representing an age range of approximately seventeen through twenty-five years. The military's awareness of and concern for the changing values and life-styles of youth currently entering the military is evidenced by the recent efforts to modernize the Armed Forces.

Harburg¹⁵ stated that, "... there is an increasing awareness on the part of the young that there is more to life than job and salary. Young men of enlistment age are searching for ways to improve the quality of their lives. The assurance of self-value once they are on their jobs is becoming increasingly important to enlistees. They are less rank conscious than their predecessors."

¹⁴K. Lang, "Technology and Career Management in The Military Establishment," The New Military: Changing Patterns of Organization. Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

¹⁵F. D. Harburg, "The Effects of Basic Military Training on the Attitude of Air Force Enlistees," Scientific Research, 1971.

Sandall¹⁶ made the following comments about today's youth: "Without the overwhelming need to work for bed, board, and clothing, youth is free to question and reject, if necessary, the premises of society without the penalties of economic want increased education tends to cause a loss of respect for less well-informed elders. It is no longer enough to believe that experience makes one wiser since the young know it isn't always true."

Janowitz¹⁷ pointed out that military personnel, in future generations, would not follow orders blindly, but would demand an explanation from those in command. Crawford,¹⁸ in discussing the attitudes of youth in the seventies and eighties, predicted that "there will be more and more serious questioning of national goals and of the obligations on the individual to subordinate himself to the necessary demands of an hierarchial system; and there will be an increasing view that society and its institutions should be conceived and rebuilt to fit the needs of the individuals."

¹⁶V. D. Sandall, "The Generation Gap," Management Quarterly September 1972.

¹⁷M. Janowitz, The Professional Soldier, Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960.

¹⁸M. P. Crawford, "Training in the 70's and 80's," Innovations for Training, Human Resources Research Organization, 1969.

In an article entitled, "Youth and the U.S. Navy," Reynolds¹⁹ pointed out that the future of the Navy -- its professionalism and mission -- is at stake, and that frankness, self-criticism, and searching analysis are the first steps toward shaping the future. He further pointed out that the Navy should make sacrifices and changes, that the instrument of change is youth, and that in America's youth lies the future of the U.S. Navy. Reynold's comments are also applicable to the other military services.

B. BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF MILITARY RECRUITS

Although many years of research have not provided an entirely satisfactory method for personnel selection, there do seem to be patterns of pre-service behavior or pre-service histories of recruits that are related to successful adjustment to military life.

A study by Plag and Goffman,²⁰ demonstrated the predictive validity of school, community, and family life history data in relation to military adjustment. An individual's adjustment to his community at large and to his educational system in particular constitute the most relevant index of his likelihood to adjust to military life.

¹⁹C. G. Reynolds, "Youth and the U.S. Navy," U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings, July 1973.

²⁰J. A. Plag and M. M. Goffman, "The Prediction of Four-Year Effectiveness Among Naval Recruits," Military Medicine, 1966.

A stable home background, a healthy childhood, good work habits in school and association with other boys and girls, including participation in sports, were assets for young civilians who put on a uniform and tried to adjust to military life.

According to Nelson,²¹ "It has been chiefly within the domain of biographical data that the Armed Forces have achieved modest success in predicting emotional adjustment to military service."

Glass,²² made the following comments about preservice schooling, "Scholastic achievement is more than an index of endowed and acquired knowledge, for it is also a valid record of prior adjustment in a disciplined and structured environment. Success in school requires not only intellectual ability for reasonable compliance to authority, some capacity to tolerate frustration, and sufficient maturity to relinquish immediate goals for later or more socially desirable objectives, all of which are similar to requirements for adequate adjustment in a military setting."

An individual's civilian employment/work record is also an important indication of his ability to adjust to military life. If a man's work

²¹P. D. Nelson, "Personnel Performance Prediction," Handbook of Military Institutions, Sage Production, 1971.

²²A. J. Glass, "Psychiatric Prediction and Military Effectiveness," U. S. Armed Forces Medical Journal, 1956.

record indicates that he moved from one job to another and/or his performance was poor, he is less likely to make a successful adjustment to military life.

Recruit trainers at the U.S. Naval Training Center, Orlando, Florida, indicated that the recruits having adjustment difficulties and actively seeking discharge had a history of:²³

1. being school dropouts,
2. records of menial jobs,
3. little sticking to one job,
4. an approach to the Navy as an experiment which one could also quit at will.

Certain recruit background characteristics do seem to be predictive of successful adjustment to a military environment and should, therefore be considered in the selection process at the recruiting level. Work record and school completion seem to be helpful predictors.

C. THE MILITARY'S IMAGE

The factors which most directly affect the attitudes of today's enlistees and society-as-a-whole toward the military are provided by the home, community, school, and national attitudes. During the past twenty years there have been many changes in the military's image.

²³See "Navy Times," 10 October 1973.

In 1955, a national survey in USA revealed that adults ranked military officers seventh in esteem among the various professions, and that teenagers ranked military careers fifth.²⁴

In the late 1950's, Janowitz,²⁵ expressed society's opinion of the military when he stated, "In a society in which individualism and personal gain are paramount virtues, it is understandable that wide sectors of the civilian population view the military career as a weak choice, as an effort to "sell out" cheaply for economic security and low pay and limited prestige."

In the late sixties and early seventies, the military's image seemed to have hit its all time low as illustrated by the following comments. General Ridgeway wrote in 1969 that he had never seen the military's image so low or public respect for its members so lacking,²⁶ and Stewart Alsop wrote in 1970 that "there has never been a time when a uniform carried with it less prestige."²⁷

In the United States, with the end of the Vietnam conflict, the military's image improved considerably. According to a public opinion survey conducted by the Institute for Social Research at the University

²⁴M. Janowitz, The Professional Soldier, Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960.

²⁵M. Janowitz, Sociology and the Military Establishment, Russell Sage, 1959.

²⁶L. R. Jefferies, "Public Attitudes Toward the Military: 1941-1971," Management Quarterly, December 1971.

²⁷Loc. Cit.

Michigan in 1974, the U.S. military was the most admired institution in the nation.²⁸

The low public opinion of the military, particularly in the sixties, was in part a result of the changing social values, motivations and life-styles of young America.

Although the widespread hostility toward the military services has lessened since the end of the Vietnam conflict and the draft, many individuals and communities of America's society still question the "legitimacy of dedicating one's life to military service,"²⁹ and the military profession is still considered by many to be something to be avoided.

The military should be aware of the differences in the young men and women entering the services today, and the influence society-as-a-whole has on the assimilation of military roles by these young people.

Harburg,³⁰ pointed out that these differences demand a different type of training from that which was appropriate for their predecessors.

Since the Indonesian War of Independence which was started in 1945, the military's image improved considerably. This was evident by the

²⁸ Navy Times, 1974.

²⁹ J. A. Barber, The Military and American Society, New York, The Free Press, 1972, p. 309.

³⁰ F. D. Harburg, The Effects of Basic Military Training, Office of Scientific Research, Arlington, 1971.

large number of young people eager to join the military. Some conditions that made them interested in the military were; pride, wearing the uniform, a sense of courage, many facilities, and the perceived respect of the society. However, at the beginning of the seventies this interest decreased -- perhaps because of the increasing stability of the government and economics in Indonesia.

D. RECRUITING

The procurement of personnel is important to any organization, but to the military services it is even more vital because of the high turnover of personnel.

Recruiting has always been, and remains, the military's primary source of manpower. In the age of the all volunteer force, a recruiter's job is indeed awesome. A recent study by the Brookings Institute showed that the services must sign up one-third of all available males, age 19 - 23, if they are to maintain the current force levels.³¹ With the end of the draft, the recruiting organizations went into high gear; and recruiting was placed high on the priority lists of all the military services.

Although many of the services tried to improve recruiter effectiveness by stressing the assignment of highly qualified personnel to

³¹A. K. Klare, Commonwealth, 18 January 1974.

recruiting jobs, the end of the draft only increased pressure on recruiters to produce "warm bodies," and exacerbated the age-old problems of "telling it like it is" and of selecting only qualified personnel.

Recruiters can have a negative effect on the adjustment of recruits to the military environment. They can select personnel that are not qualified for military service, and therefore have little chance of making a satisfactory adjustment. Not only have the services been criticized for lowering standards for enlistment, but some recruiters have been criticized and even relieved for falsifying records such as mental tests in order to meet quotas.³²

Recruit trainers have accused recruiters of deliberately enlisting substandard personnel, and there seems to be some support for their accusations. At Recruit Training Command, Orlando, Florida, there are cases on file in which recruits said that their recruiter helped them fill out qualification tests; and there is evidence of large variations between basic battery test scores at the recruiting station and the recruit training command. Although trainers indicate they expect and understand some variation, they are suspect because the variation often is large among men who do not get good scores to begin with.³³

³²L. E. Prina, "Permissiveness, Lack of Discipline," Seapower, March, 1973.

³³Navy Times, October 1973.

Another way in which recruiters can adversely affect recruit adjustment is by overselling their product, or by giving totally inaccurate information about what to expect at recruit training. This stretching or bypassing the truth is illustrated by the comments of an Army recruiter -- "Just like car salesmen, you don't sell cars by talking about the defect. I couldn't sell an Oldsmobile if I told a guy we had to recall 100,000 last year because of a bad transmission."³⁴

The expectations men receive from their recruiters about recruit training are an important component in how well they initially adjust to the military. A study by Broedling and Goldsamt,³⁵ showed that four in ten recruits believed they would have adjusted more easily if the recruiter had been more accurate in describing recruit training. If a recruiter creates a distorted image of recruit training, the "culture shock" experienced by a recruit will be just that much more severe. According to Barnes, "Deception in the recruiting process does not begin with the hard-pressed neighborhood recruiter struggling to meet his quota. It starts at a much higher level, where policy decisions are made and where advertising themes are developed and approved."³⁶

³⁴P. Barnes, The Plight of the Citizen Soldier, New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1972, p. 43.

³⁵L. A. Broedling and M. Goldsamt, "The Perceived Effectiveness of Recruit Training on Personal Adjustments to Conditions of Navy Life," Naval Research and Development Laboratory, September 1971.

³⁶Loc. Cit. No. 34, p. 46.

There is some evidence that recruiting in the Armed Forces is improving. This may be due to the improved public opinion of the military and a growing unemployment rate. It may also be that the services are assigning more qualified personnel to recruiting jobs and monitoring their performance more closely; but, hopefully recruiters are finally realizing that their worst enemy is a dissatisfied customer.

Up until the present time, recruiting in Indonesia was always smooth. Nevertheless, the services tried to improve recruiter effectiveness. So the recruit training in Naval Training Command was also challenged to improve continuously.

V. THE TRANSITION FROM CIVILIAN TO MILITARY LIFE

A. TRANSITION

An individual entering the Armed Forces finds himself in a whirlwind of activity specifically directed toward transforming him from a civilian into a recruit in the shortest possible time. According to Datel and Lifrak,³⁷ he steps from society-as-a-whole (i. e., home, school, employment, peer group, and social/cultural fabric) where emphasis has been placed upon developing independence, autonomous decision-making, respect for individual differences, privilege to opposing viewpoints, committee-style deliberation, virtual worship of the single human being into a subsystem (i. e., recruit training) governed by methods, rules and standards of conduct which require the individual to sacrifice his autonomy, immediately and subserviently, for the goals of the group. He brings to the military an established array of "taken-for-granted" and "go-without-sayings," many of which no longer work.

B. RECRUIT REACTION

Coming from the relative freedom of movement and choice that characterize civilian life, the new recruit may find his initiation into

³⁷W. E. Datel and S. T. Lifrak, "Expectations, Affect Change, and Military Performance in the Army Recruit," Psychological Reports, 1969.

the military a traumatic experience which has been referred to as "culture shock" by Coates and Pellegrin.³⁸ From the start, demands are made of him which he is not sure how to meet. He is involved in the situation 24 hours a day without relief and without any opportunity to modify the environment. The effect is that he is often stunned, dazed, and frightened. For many recruits, this is a period of anxiety which exceeds anything they have experienced before. Datel and Lifrak,³⁹ suggested that the stress of basic training is considerably greater than the stresses of living experienced by psychiatric patients. They found that a recruit's stress level, in fact, is actually considerably higher than that found in helicopter medics flying dangerous rescue missions or in soldiers anticipating an attack from the enemy. Weybrew,⁴⁰ pointed out that, "... stresses seldom occur one at a time, but real life situations characteristically involve multiple stressors, often imposed simultaneously or in some cases sequentially."

Bourne,⁴¹ had the following to say about initial reactions to recruit training:

³⁸C. H. Coates and R. J. Pellegrin, "A Study of American Military Institutions Military Life." Social Science Press, 1965.

³⁹Loc. Cit., No. 37.

⁴⁰B. A. Weybrew, "Patterns of Psychophysiological Response to Military Stress." Psychological Stress-Issues in Research, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

⁴¹P. G. Bourne, "Some Observations on the Psychological Phenomenon Seen in Basic Training." Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 1967.

Entering the Army is probably the most acutely shocking event that they (recruits) have ever experienced. It represents the most destructive threat to their adaptive capacity that they have ever had to endure.

The controls, hectic scheduling of activity, loss of emotional support, encountered by a recruit early in his military experience invokes in him a resentment of the service, anger, and an intense longing for the freedom of civilian life he so recently left behind him.

Basic training differs not only among the three military services but also between various basic training commands within each service.

C. FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

Fortunately, as pointed out by Janowitz,⁴² the shock technique which has been an essential element of the older forms of discipline based on domination is being or has been modified. The impact of technology has forced a shift in the practices of military authority.

The residues of shock treatment persist, but military training has become a more gradual process of assimilation, and a process of fostering positive incentives and loyalties through a team concept. Evidence of this is seen in the new experimental approach to basic training called the merit-reward system. It attempts to condition the behavior of recruits by using carefully controlled rewards rather than harshly imposed punishments and physical and psychological harrassment.

⁴²M. Janowitz, Sociology and the Military Establishment, Russell Sage, 1959.

The goal of reducing stress in recruit training has been traditionally questioned. The argument frequently proffered is that the stress of recruit training will help ensure effectiveness and survival in combat and other assignments. Although the "transfer of learning" in this situation is questionable, the crux of the matter seems to be the appropriate level or degree of stress that would be conducive to good performance and adjustment.

Crawford,⁴³ in his discussion of the problem which military training programs have in keeping pace with the times, stressed the need for these programs to readjust themselves to the changing levels of recruit education, physical development, and maturity. The military services are made up of men and women from society at large, and as such is simply a reflection of that society. As society changes, so must the military.

⁴³M. P. Crawford, "Training in the 70's and 80's," Innovations for Training, 1969.

VI. THE ENVIRONMENTAL ADAPTION

A. STRESS AND FRUSTRATION

The environmental adaption or adjustment as used in psychology, means that individuals must accommodate themselves in order to fit certain demands of their environment. According to Sawrey and Telford adjustment emphasizes socialization of the individual and development of coping behavior. Psychological adjustment consists of the processes by means of which the individual copes with the physical and social demands and expectations of the world. They stated that the individual who adequately deals with these demands and expectations is "well adjusted."⁴⁴

Throughout the literature on adjustment, the terms stress and frustration are mentioned time and time again. Basowitz⁴⁵ defines stress as the threat to the fulfillment of basic needs: the maintenance of regulated functioning, and to growth and development. When demands are beyond a person's resources, stress is produced. According to Sawrey,⁴⁶ ".... stimulus conditions that result in frustration as a

⁴⁴J. M. Sawrey and C. W. Telford, Psychology of Adjustment, Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

⁴⁵H. Basowitz and Others, Reading in the Psychology of Adjustment, McGraw-Hill, 1959.

⁴⁶Loc. Cit. No. 44, p. 203.

response can be referred to as 'stressful'. Stress is a kind of class name for a variety of barriers, blockings, and thwartings." A blocking condition that is particularly relevant to adjustment to recruit training is man's social environment. The social environment influences an individual's need-satisfying behavior by way of formal rules, regulations and customs and is potentially capable of preventing the immediate and direct satisfaction of needs.

Lazarus,⁴⁷ stated that "the social institutions of the culture into which a person is born demand conformity to certain social values and culturally developed patterns of behavior." Throughout life these various demands are expressed as expectations that others have of individuals. "... these expectations are usually enforced by the threat of physical punishment or of psychological penalties, they operate as powerful pressures on an individual to which he must accommodate if he is to have comfortable and effective intercourse with his social environment."

An inevitable and powerful source of need-thwarting springs up when the demands that require adjustive behavior are in conflict. When conflict occurs between two powerful yet incompatible needs, the task of making a satisfactory adjustment is far more difficult. Under such circumstances, signs of stress are likely to emerge.

⁴⁷R. S. Lazarus, Personality and Adjustment, Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Heyns,⁴⁸ describes frustration as an "internal state of the organism," which can be observed when an individual is not getting what he wants; and as an "event or state of affairs," which refers to a barrier itself and to the conditions that prevent successful response. In the latter sense, prison walls and the presence of guards are frustrating to the desire of inmates to escape confinement. Frustrations are inevitable and in order to resolve them, man learns or adopts different modes of thinking, believing and acting.

B. PERSONAL QUALITIES

According to Korman,⁴⁹ the type of behavior a person will engage in is a function of the kind of person he is in terms of his relatively enduring traits and the environment in which he happens to find himself.

Effective performance and adjustment depends in part on the individual to adjust or the probability that he will adjust should concern military management prior to an individual's arrival at recruit training. Hollingshead,⁵⁰ pointed out that although all men in a given military situation are subject to the same external conditions, they do not react in a similar manner. He stated that the study of life-histories revealed

⁴⁸R. W. Heyns, The Psychology of Personal Adjustment, Henry Holt, 1958.

⁴⁹A. K. Korman, Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Prentice-Hall, 1971.

⁵⁰A. B. Hollingshead, "Adjustment to Military Life," American Journal of Sociology, 1946.

significant differences between the pre-military experiences of the man who is able to adjust to military life and the one that is not.

In discussing the emotional requirements of military life, Janowitz,⁵¹ pointed out that "... in general, most emotional maladjustments unless properly dealt with are likely to become exacerbated under the conditions of military life." An individual's adjustment to military service is affected not only by so-called "personality" variables, but also by the social characteristics of society and the historical circumstances under which the recruit enters the military service.

The ability of an individual to adjust in every situation depends on his intelligence, moral character, tolerance for ambiguity, and high self esteem. In military life, where each person has to work together as a team, tolerance for ambiguity, high self esteem, and moral character were more important than intelligence.

C. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Performance and adjustment are also affected by the structure and actions of the organization in which the individual serves. Whether an organization takes the necessary action to facilitate an individual's adjustment is important. Recruits require time to adjust from civilian to military life. They have much to learn and very little time in which to learn it. Whether an individual eventually performs effectively quite

⁵¹Loc. Cit. No. 42.

often depends on whether he receives the extra time or special support needed, especially during recruit training.

D. DEMANDS

The demands of recruit training tend to be so excessive that a recruit cannot comply with all of them to the letter. With respect to these demands, most recruits are already sufficiently competent in interpersonal situations to learn rather quickly how to meet the training demands with a reasonable degree of efficiency and a minimum of anxiety. They can react to the situation of too much to do in too little time by increasing effort, cooperative effort and division of labor, or by cutting corners and taking risks by letting some things "slide" while concentrating on others. Of course, there are a small number of recruits who cannot meet these demands. The recruit who interprets every command literally is likely to be completely overwhelmed by anxiety at his inability to achieve the extreme standards of performance he thus sets for himself. Such compulsive behavior is usually doomed to failure, and the recruit that exhibits this type of behavior is unlikely to complete the training program. Instead, he is a likely prospect for emotional disturbance or running away in an attempt to remove himself from the tightly controlled situation in which he has not learned to operate with any self-confidence.

VII. SITUATIONS THAT AFFECT STRESS

There are many situations that affect stress in the military recruit training environment. Some of these are deprivation of material comforts, loss of privacy, loss of emotional support, complexity of the organization, etc. To understand these stresses may be a first step in controlling or eliminating the environmental situations producing the stress.

A. DEPRIVATION OF MATERIAL COMFORT

Many recruits are deprived of material comforts which they had previously taken for granted. Their quarters or barracks can be described as austere. Each man is assigned a bunk which is plain, unadorned and sometimes uncomfortable. On more than one occasion, a new recruit's bunk has reeked of a former occupant who happened to suffer from enuresis, or contained body lice. Each man must live out of a locker in which must be stored all of his authorized possessions. Bathing and toilet facilities are more often than not communal and distant. His clothing and spaces must be kept clean without the aid of modern conveniences. There are many other comforts that are conspicuously absent from the training environment.

B. LOSS OF PRIVACY

At the most personal level, recruits face a loss of privacy. A recruit can easily complete his training without having once been alone. All activities, take place in large or small groups or at least in the presence of others. A recruit's body is totally and completely exposed to those about him, and quite often produces in him a feeling of embarrassment and inadequacy. This situation is quite alien to his pre-military environment, and as a result, he suffers high levels of tension in his attempt to adjust. A study done by Broedling and Goldsamt,⁵² showed that recruits encountered the most adjustment difficulty in getting used to less privacy. They pointed out that over half of the recruits in their study had adjustment problems in this area, and suggested that perhaps this was symptomatic of the "environmental shock."

C. LOSS OF EMOTIONAL SUPPORT

Another situation in the recruit training environment is the loss of emotional supports formerly provided by a recruit's family. Heyns,⁵³ pointed out that most individuals are dependent on others for satisfaction of needs and for emotional support, and they show signs of anxiety when separation occurs.

⁵²Loc. Cit. No. 35.

⁵³R. W. Heyns, The Psychology of Personal Adjustment, New York, Henry Holt, 1958.

In discussing the tensions of military life, Janowitz stated that, "... the general tensions of adult life plus the specific tensions of military service must be coped by the individual without the support or gratification of family life traditional to civil society."⁵⁴

In discussing World War II soldiers who were excessively dependent on their families, Ginzberg pointed out that, "as long as they had special support, they could cope successfully with the strains and stresses of the outside world."⁵⁵ He further pointed out that when a man joins the military, his separation from family involves not only the loss of direct personal relations with loved ones, but also the transfer from an environment that he knows intimately to one that is more or less completely alien.

D. LEVELING PROCESS

Some recruits, particularly those at the extremes of the ability and environmental spectrums, suffer tension as a result of common training program being given to recruits with a wide variety of capacities and backgrounds. Janowitz referred to this when he said, "the very notion of basic training implies that there is a set of skills which all members of the institution can and must know ...".⁵⁶ A review of

⁵⁴Loc. Cit. No. 17.

⁵⁵E. Ginzberg, "The Ineffective Soldier," Breakdown and Recovery, New York: Columbia University Press, 1959.

⁵⁶M. Janowitz, "Basic Education and Youth Socialization in the Armed Forces," Handbook of Military Institutions. Sage Publications, 1971.

the training problems by Dunlap,⁵⁷ stressed the neglect of individual differences, he pointed out that basic training could be made more efficient by grouping recruits by ability level, thus individualizing training to some extent. The cost of this approach, however, might be the demotivating effect upon less able recruits.

E. COMPLEXITY OF THE ORGANIZATION

Adjustment to any organization is difficult for many people. Several reasons for this difficulty is pointed out by Kahn, "Within an organization members behave in ways in which they would not behave outside it. They use titles that would not be used outside. They wear uniforms or costumes Above all, their behavior in organization shows a selectivity, a restrictiveness, and a persistence that is not to be observed in the same persons when outside of the organization."⁵⁸

In a civilian organization, unlike a military organization, members that encounter difficulty with adjustment or find the situation unsatisfactory can make their objections known, secure a change within the organization, or more importantly they can leave or escape. But in a military organization, these options are usually not possible and as Heyns has pointed out, "anxiety is most likely to occur when efforts

⁵⁷Dunlap and Associates, Inc., The Navy's Training Problems, Darien, 1964.

⁵⁸R. L. Kahn and Others, Organization Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity, New York, John Wiley, 1964.

to escape the danger are ineffective or impossible."⁵⁹

Most recruits have never experienced an organization of the complexity of a military service. There is a multitude of different rules, different kinds of people, and different ways of action. According to Hollingshead,⁶⁰ not only must a recruit learn that the scheduling and allocation of time is dictated by the organization, but he must also learn that the organization even defines how the task allotted to a given time is to be accomplished. Recruits are frequently at a loss as to how to behave. An individual's behavior and adjustment is affected by the structure and the actions of the organization in which he serves.

F. REGIMENTATION AND DISCIPLINE

A certain amount of regimentation is common to all military organizations, but during basic training, a recruit must adjust to a relatively high degree of regimentation and discipline. According to Janowitz, "The military establishment is a social organization which involves continual exercise of management and command in order to achieve a planned coordination of immense scope and detail. As opposed to civilian life where large areas of human behavior are

⁵⁹R. W. Heyns, The Psychology of Personal Adjustment, New York; Henry Holt, 1958.

⁶⁰A. B. Hollingshead, "Adjustment to Military Life," American Journal of Sociology, 1946.

self-directed or where coordination takes place on an automatic or traditional basis, military life gives the individual the impression of extremely close supervision of his behavior." He further stated that the military had often been characterized as being "authoritarian, stratified, and traditional."⁶¹

G. HECTIC SCHEDULE OF ACTIVITIES

It is commonplace in a military basic training command for trainees to be faced with more than they can accomplish and stiff sanctions for failure. There are various ways of handling this type of situation which have been mentioned earlier. A study by Snyder,⁶² showed that lack of sleep and lack of time for personal affairs were highly salient problems for most trainees. These problems were attributed to poor coordination and misdirected effort at the company level, but they can also be attributed to the hectic training schedule. In a recruit training program, there are many skills to be learned, much information and knowledge to be digested, not to mention the many hours that must be devoted to in and outprocessing activities such as uniform issue, medical and dental examinations, issuance of identification cards, name

⁶¹ M. Janowitz, Sociology and the Military Establishment, New York; Russell Sage, 1959.

⁶² Loc. Cit. No. 9.

tags, travel arrangements, etc. All these activities must be done in a relatively short period of time, and could never be completed in a leisurely manner.

H. AUTHORITY

Many recruits that experience a high degree of anxiety and have severe adjustment problems in the recruit training environment do not seem to be able to handle authority relationships. They seem to resent authority, and this resentment can often be traced to parent-child relationships. Obviously, a question that comes to mind is why these recruits chose to join the military service. The answer seems to be that in their attempt to escape an unhappy or uncomfortable situation at home or work about which they had little insight, they hastily made a decision to join an organization, the nature of which they did not consider or at least did not understand.

Campbell and McCormack,⁶³ indicated that for the majority of recruits, the military environment is more rigidly hierarchial and authoritarian than the homes, school, and jobs from which they were drawn. Heyns,⁶⁴ pointed out that many adjustment problems that involve relationships to authority begin in early parent-child relationships

⁶³D. T. Campbell, and T. H. McCormack, "Military Experience and Attitudes Toward Authority," American Journal of Sociology, 1957.

⁶⁴Loc. Cit. No. 48.

and persist into adult life, and that in reacting to authority, these individuals are usually submissive and compliant. Even those recruits in the former category feel guilty about their submissiveness.

The degree of stress caused by demands of authority figures often depends on the attitude toward the person making the demand, the number and frequency of the demands, the capacity of the individual to comply with the demands, and the results of the compliance or non-compliance.

According to Janowitz, "... in any organization, civilian or military, authority systems operate on a day-to-day basis or fail to operate because of the status that is, the prestige and the respect the officers have, and the effectiveness of the military authority is deeply conditioned by the status and prestige which civilian society accords the military profession."⁶⁵

⁶⁵M. Janowitz, Sociology and the Military Establishment, New York, Russell Sage, 1959.

VIII. STAFF PERSONNEL AND THEIR EFFECT ON RECRUIT ADJUSTMENT AND PERFORMANCE

Staff personnel play an important role in a recruit's adjustment to the military environment, particularly the company commander. He spends more time with recruits than any other staff member and he spends a considerable amount of his time counseling recruits with training and personal problems. If he has a bad attitude, then his negative feelings may be transferred to the recruit. And, if he does not have some knowledge and understanding of human behavior, he may exacerbate a recruit's problems.

To be a successful and effective company commander, a person must want the job; and he must be carefully selected and trained. Harburg stated that "the attempt should be made to screen applicants for training instructor positions; a man who has demonstrated the ability to earn the respect of his subordinates and his superiors should be the primary target of a selection process."⁶⁶ The importance of a company commander being expected to "lead" not "push" recruits through this important period of military service. Harburg also said, "If the selection process of training instructors is a good one, the training program will be directly benefitted."⁶⁷

⁶⁶ F. D. Harburg, The Effects of Basic Military Training, Scientific Research, 1971.

⁶⁷ Loc. Cit.

Trainers should receive as much education as possible in leadership and the behavior aspects of individual and group work. Harburg stressed the importance of educating the training staff in "what it is that is different about the new generation and why they are so different."⁶⁸

Leaders must be strong and responsive to the changing needs and life styles of men and women who must follow them. This is particularly true at the recruit training level, deficiencies in leadership at this level result in negative recruit attitudes, poor morale, reduced motivation, and poor performance and adjustment in general. A company under the leadership of an ineffective company commander, often exhibits low morale, poor discipline and performance. A survey of recruits during basic training by Snyder,⁶⁹ showed that one of the three general types of factors which detracted from the effectiveness of training and thereby lowered morale was ineffective leadership.

Although the selection, training and performance of the commanders differs among the various military services, it is felt that the Indonesian Navy and its recruit training commands are negligent in this area even though they verbalize their recognition of the importance of selecting and assigning only experienced, well-qualified personnel to recruit training command positions.

⁶⁸ Loc. Cit.

⁶⁹ R. Snyder, Some Problems of Basic Training Effectiveness, Human Research Unit, 1954.

IX. A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF RECRUIT TRAINING

Parallel to economic and social development of the last few years in Indonesia, the government has given special priority to the strengthening of defense capabilities in order to maintain the national independence and integrity because it is believed that only in an atmosphere of national security that we can implement the development of economic and social programs. This is the government's policy with respect to the nation's defense capabilities, and its unique role in the preservation of the country's independence.

Based on this policy, the Indonesian Armed Forces have been developing their quality, and as a part of the Armed Forces, the Indonesian Navy has an equal development. This development will continue in the future. It is obvious that while the weapon systems change, and the organization to handle them changes, men also change. If the environment changes, the people will have to change too.

Officers and enlisted with new ideas, new attitudes will be required to perform in the development of the Indonesian Navy today. To get people to do this job effectively requires training and motivation.

To design a process for development of recruit training the first question will be, "What should be the Policies and Objectives of the recruit training program?" Policies and objectives lend guidance and

direction to training practices, that will insure the highest-skilled military personnel.

Second, "What should be the content of the recruit training program?" Content refers to the knowledge, skill, and attitudes that must be imparted to an individual in order to change behavior in the direction of systematically predetermined ends. The content of a training program should be determined by a careful, systematic analysis of the jobs for which the recruit must be trained. Basically, this can be accomplished only by carrying out some preliminary research, which means that logical, reflective, and systematic thinking must be applied to a study of the nature and breakdown of each job. If the content is faulty, so will be the training results.

Third, "What methods should be used in order to insure the success of the recruit training program?" In general, method refers to the means that will be utilized to impart the essential content to the learner in a training program and to facilitate his motivation to adapt to Navy life. The success of training depends upon finding the best method for transferring the content to the trainee and modifying his attitudes. Methods must be analyzed by conducting careful experimentation and evaluation, for in this manner comparisons of different methods can be made and decisions arrived at which justify the use of a method on the basis of verified facts and data.

Fourth, "Who is to do the training?" Along with sound content and efficient methods it is necessary to have trainers that are properly

selected and adequately trained. Problems that require research with regard to trainers include such areas as the personality of the trainers and the knowledge and the attitude they possess. There is one way to arrive at a determination of who will be the better trainer, and that is through a carefully conducted research program.

Fifth, "How is recruit training to be evaluated?" Perhaps the most important area for research (and in many cases the most neglected) is in determining how effective a recruit training program really is. Is the training actually producing the changes in the behavior of the trainees in the predetermined and desired direction? If so -- for how long?

The foregoing does not reflect in any way the complete variety of areas in which research is necessary in training. The questions posed serve only to point out some of the more important questions that must be answered and at the same time they emphasize the inseparable and integrated nature of training and research.

A. THE RELATIONSHIP OF TRAINING AND RESEARCH

DePhillips pointed out that "to believe that training and research can be separate functions is a fallacy."⁷⁰ In a sense it is impossible to conduct training without using the tools of research.

⁷⁰ Frank A. DePhillips, Ph. D, and Others, "Research and Training, " Management of Training Program, Richard D. Irwin Inc., 1960.

Training conducted without research is like an automobile without a driver. To drive the automobile effectively, the driver must be equipped with the essential knowledge, be adept at the proper skills required, be inculcated with the necessary attitude, and be experienced. But knowing how to drive the car is not enough, since it is equally important to understand where one wishes to direct the automobile.

Research is integral to the successful operation of a recruit training program. Training research is concerned with the facts, data, and principles that are necessary to carry out training programs. Accordingly, it should be self-evident that the first step in instituting a training program is to assess the Navy's skill needs, to assess the recruit's present skill levels and then to investigate the most efficient method of improving any skill deficits and to what minimum criterion. One then should also inventory the available training assets, on the job training, self instruction packages, etc. Thus research is a valuable tool to use in discovering the sources of failure, and at the same time it is helpful in determining whether an investment in training is required. Research is the built-in weather vane that is necessary to determine the direction, the needs, and the results of recruit training. In another sense research comes before, during, and after recruit training is conducted, and then it repeats itself over and over again. As a consequence, research is inseparable from training and is continuing in nature. The measurement of results is one of the most effective controls that

management has. Research is the best way to measure recruit training results.

The most general purpose of research in training programs is obviously the improvement of the efficiency of the training. The problem is to investigate critically every facet of the training mechanism in order to determine whether the objectives of the program are attained.

It must be understood that the objective of any recruit training program is to change human behavior in a predetermined direction aimed at the improvement of the efficiency of the Navy. Since the research conducted is an inseparable part of training, it therefore follows that the main purpose of a recruit training program must also be directed toward the improvement of human efficiency. Consequently, the main target upon which research is focused is the trainee whose behavior is to be altered.

B. THE BARRIERS TO TRAINING RESEARCH

The obstacles that interfere with the conduct of research in a training program are numerous. They run from financial limitations to personality traits that are unfavorable to research programs.

From a financial standpoint, many people view research as a waste of money, especially where expenditures for investigations are related to human values. In a sense DePhillips said that "managers

spend millions of dollars each year on research that is concerned with technological advances but, in contrast, spend pennies with regard to human behavior research."⁷¹ The narrow viewpoint of efficiency is all too often reflected in the objectives of many training programs, for most research that is conducted is concerned mainly with immediate changes in skill and knowledge that will be reflected in immediate increases in ability. The emphasis in such training is usually placed on effecting changes in human behavior without regard for the feelings, attitudes, and opinions of trainees. Skill and knowledge cannot be separated from human values and attitudes. Research in training, regardless of whether it is recruit training, job training, or developmental, must be aware of the human equation and must seek ways to instruct and develop men in order to make them more satisfied and better adjusted to their environment.

Training research requires the cooperation and coordination of many levels of the management. DePhillips stated that to offset the obstacles that confront training research it is necessary to achieve the following:⁷²

1. Change the attitudes of management toward research.
2. Give research in training the high status it requires.

⁷¹Loc. Cit. No. 70, p. 376.

⁷²Loc. Cit. No. 70, p. 377.

3. Provide the financial backing it deserves.
4. Generate the cooperation and coordination of all levels of the management team.
5. Educate for an appreciation of the importance of research.
6. Train the training directors in the tools and methods of research.

C. THE METHODS OF TRAINING RESEARCH

Research has been characterized as a critical investigation into areas of doubt and uncertainty, applying logical, systematic, and organized thinking, in order to find facts and principles that will solve difficulties. However, to achieve this end, the research technician must be equipped and expert in the knowledge and skill to do his job effectively. First we will discuss the survey method of research and then an exposition of the experimental method.

1. The Survey Method

Survey research is the scientific method of collecting and examining pertinent data, as objectively as possible, concerning a specific problem, in a systematic manner and then to analyze and interpret such data in order to improve existing conditions. This requires that the researcher must record data as they truly exist, devoid of bias and inaccuracies. Every method of data collection, including the survey, is only an approximation to knowledge. According to Warwick,⁷³ the

⁷³Donald P. Warwick, and Charles A. Lininger, The Sample Survey: Theory and Practice, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975.

survey is highly valuable for studying some problems such as public opinion, and almost worthless for others. Decisions about research methods involve many considerations, including costs, time, the researcher's own experience and qualifications, and the availability of trained staff and facilities. Nevertheless, in coming to such a decision Warwick stated that it would be helpful to consider the following six criteria:⁷⁴

1. Appropriateness to the objectives of the research.
2. Accuracy of measurement.
3. Generalizability of the results.
4. Explanatory power.
5. Administrative convenience.
6. Avoidance of ethical and political problems.

It is obvious therefore, that the reason for any survey is to determine a norm that acts as a guide to action. Consequently, a carefully conducted survey could provide the beginner with a definite training program that could be modeled and suited to the specific requirements of any given situation.

One of the techniques for conducting a survey is to carry out a systematic investigation of the jobs presently being performed in the institution. In management terminology this procedure is called a "job analysis." It is actually a survey of current jobs, with the

⁷⁴Loc. Cit. p. 6-9.

objective of classifying, naming, and describing the jobs in question. Thus a job analysis will aid in establishing job classifications and job descriptions.

To carry out a survey of any kind, including a job analysis, the researcher has a choice of several tools that can be used to collect and gather the facts and information needed. The tools that are most frequently used are; observation, interviews, questionnaires, attitude and opinion scales.

The purpose of a job analysis survey is to study the nature of a job as well as the human requirements that are essential to performing the task.

Of noteworthy importance is the fact that the results of survey research is the development of a plan of action. But it must be emphasized that such action is not the cure-all for problems; rather, it is merely the start of a program which must then be followed up with further research to determine its effectiveness.

2. The Experimental Method

Experimental research is that type of controlled research in which the variables affecting human behavior are isolated, and in which one variable at a time is permitted to affect an individual or a group of individuals. Variables are those factors or conditions that may cause individuals to behave in certain ways. For example, someone may ask why it is that some people learn to do a job faster and more accurately

than do other people. Perhaps one has more intelligence, is more mechanically inclined, has better motivation, can see better, has more experience, is less affected by noise, and many other reasons may be added. Therefore, if one wanted to ascertain in a more definitive manner what specific variables accounted for the differences, it would be necessary first to isolate all the variables that could affect the people, then it would be necessary to take one variable at a time and subject each to controlled conditions, where only the one factor being tested could affect the learner. If all the variables were then treated in the same manner, it would be possible to determine which one of all the factors was responsible for the differences.

Experimental research aims to answer two basic questions:

1. Does the training program change the behavior of the trainees in the predetermined direction that has been desired?
2. What laws can be formulated that can be applied to all training conditions?

With regard to the problem of changing human behavior, it can be generally stated that the purpose of all training is to attempt to equip the trainee with new knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will be carried over to the actual working situation. Psychologically, this is known as "law of transfer of training," which simply means the transference of knowledge, skills, and attitudes from one situation to another. A

necessary prerequisite to the problem of answering the question of whether or not human behavior is changed is that one related to the determination of criteria. It is impossible to measure anything accurately unless some definite yardsticks, standards, or criteria are first established. Where training criteria are narrowed to the material aspects of job performance, the total requirements of job success are ignored. Consequently, the purpose of experimental research should be viewed as twofold: first, it should seek to determine the total meaning of successful job performance, and, second, it should then be used to evaluate whether or not the training program is meeting the requirements of the determined concepts of job performance. In essence experimental research, therefore, first seeks to establish criteria and then tries to ascertain whether the changes in human behavior that have occurred in the training program are, in fact, transferred to the requirements of successful job performance.

The second basic question that experimental research seeks to answer is concerned with the formulation of laws and principles related to training. Experimental research is basically a process of mental activity that stresses a controlled search for facts and evidence that will accurately explain the cause-and-effect relationships of a phenomenon. For example, the law of transfer of training was formulated after much research in the field of the psychology of learning had been conducted. Thus the law today is used as a guide for all training programs. Laws

or principles of learning are important to training staffs because they help to direct and guide actions along proved lines.

In summary, it may be pointed out that experimental research aids in the following ways:

1. It serves as a tool to evaluate the effectiveness of training.
2. It helps to determine criteria that are essential to evaluation and measurement of training.
3. It helps to discover laws and principles that may facilitate the training and learning process for future requirements.

D. A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO TRAINING

Man is constantly in touch with systems. The electric light is the output of a system. The inputs in some remote power-generating station were coal, water power, or atomic energy. The process was that of power generation and transmission. The output was light. These three ingredients comprise most of the systems that deal with: inputs, process, and outputs. There is much to be said for adopting a systems approach to the job of the training staff. The system concept is primarily a way of thinking about the job of managing. It provides a framework for the solution to perplexing problems: what to train for, where to begin the process of training, what should the process accomplish, how to evaluate results. Such a system has many advantages. For one thing it starts at the beginning, moves to the middle, and

proceeds to the end and then evaluates how well it did. If a system is to be workable it should operate as part of a larger system, should permit subsystems, and perhaps equally important, should make use of the experience and knowledge already being used. System provides an integrated plan for the whole that goes from one place to another in regular fashion and by which progress and achievement can be measured.

The most common form of system in use in advanced training departments is the cybernetic system of training.⁷⁵ It presumes that the needs will be identified in the organization, that the training processes will meet the needs, and that evaluation will measure the effect. This is a plan for restoring organization performance to ideal levels through changing behavior that requires modifying. Pictured schematically, it looks something like figure 3.

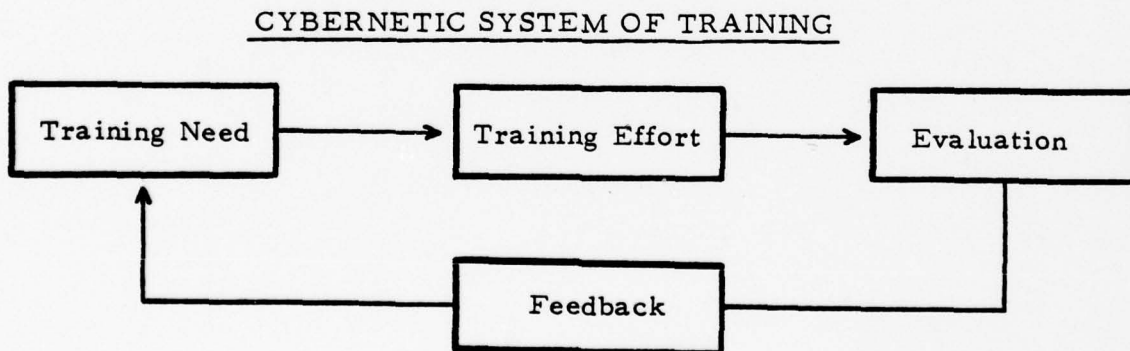


Figure 3

⁷⁵ George S. Odiorne, Training by Objectives, The Macmillan Co., 1970, p. 73-112.

The trainer must determine needs by defining what organization needs for improved behavior are and array his courses and other educational efforts in such a way that the training program's results will support the organization that produces the need and that the behavior taught in the training course will be maintained back on the job.

Current training literature reveals that more and more attention is being paid to "systems." In almost every instance they are cybernetic systems.⁷⁶ Perhaps the most persuasive reason for adhering to a cybernetic system of organizing and managing training is the very popularity of the cybernetic concept. It is a communication theory that treats organisms and organizations as being very much alike both can display behavior. Because the subjects of the training department's efforts are organisms (trainees), it seems to be sensible to treat the training process as a feedback or cybernetic process that is occurring to an organism. This paves the way to expanding the logic to presume that the training department itself is a cybernetic system.

E. PLANNING AND DIRECTING THE TRAINING PROGRAM

Basic to any systematic training plan is the determination of a precise set of skill requirements. Once these are established we may go on to:⁷⁷

⁷⁶ Loc. Cit. No. 75, p. 80.

⁷⁷ Homer C. Rose, The Development and Supervision of Training Programs, American Technical Society, 1964.

1. Assess the abilities possessed by trainees.
2. Determine the objectives for the desired performance in the job occupation.
3. From the information obtained in the two previous steps, determine training requirements for individuals and groups.
4. Assess available training resources (instructors, training materials, training aids and equipment).
5. Plan detailed training programs to develop the required skills (approach course of study, lesson plans, and tests).
6. Direct, control, and evaluate the process of training (classroom, training fields, on-the-job).
7. Evaluate the results of training through measurement of post-training job performance.

The process is as depicted in figure 4.

STEP I. Assess the skills possessed by individual trainees.

Usually in recruit training, the basic knowledge and skills that recruits possess have been determined as a stipulation before joining the Navy. Once the type and level of performance required by the occupation has been analyzed and validated, we can proceed to the next step.

STEP II. Determining the requirements of the job.

Determining the need for training is to identify the performance requirements of the job. We must start with a detailed and valid assessment or inventory of the skills and knowledges required for proficiency. This inventory is called job description. This is the basic and most systematic method of identifying the specific skills and knowledges required for individual trainees and of groups of trainees in an occupation.

THE MANAGEMENT OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

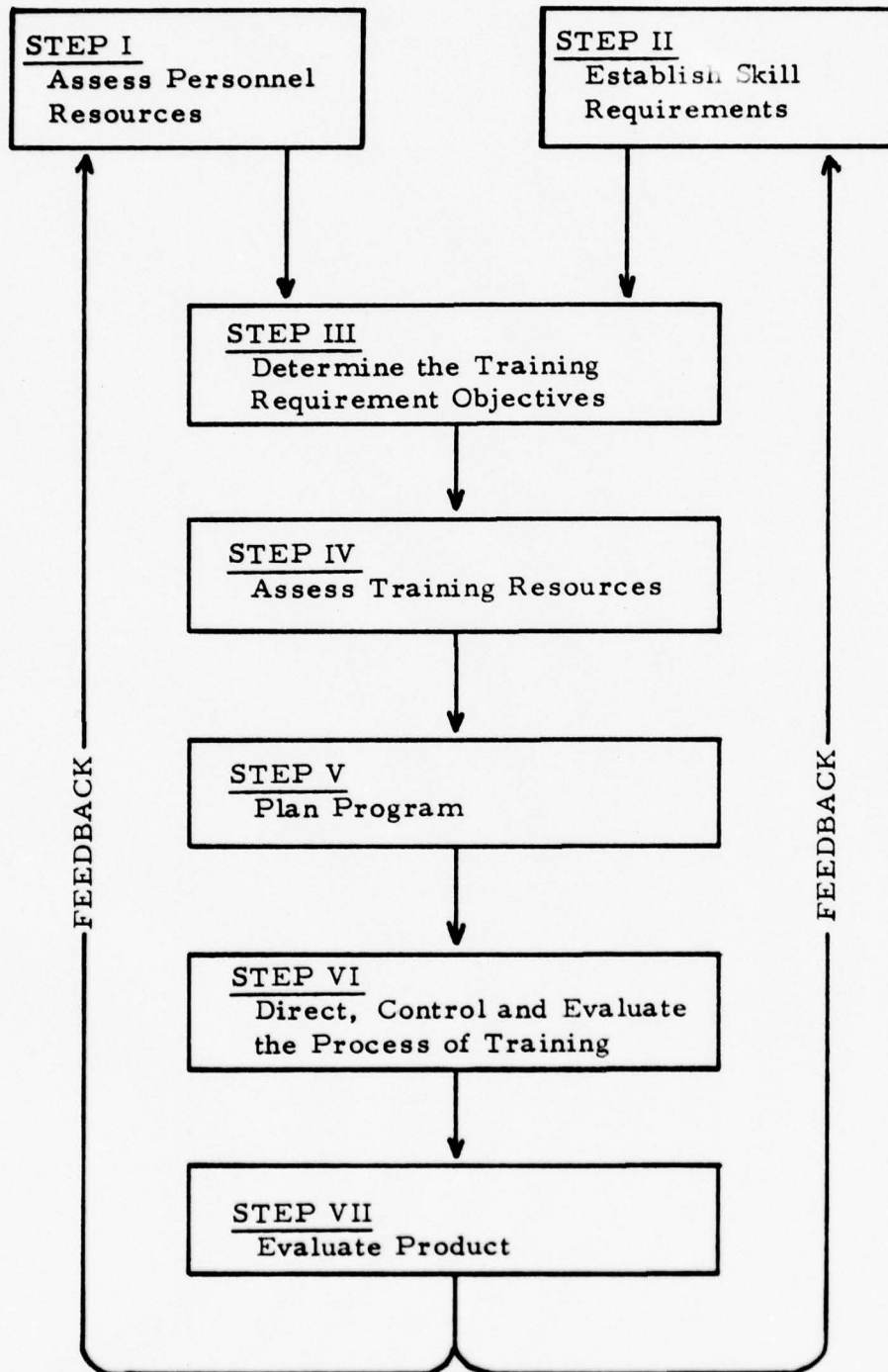


Figure 4

STEP III. Determine qualitative and quantitative requirements for Training Objectives.

This step is to determine types, levels, and amount of training required to develop abilities (knowledge, skill, attitude) required for performance on the job. The difference, between the requirements of the job and the qualifications of available personnel is the training requirement. This should be identical to the training objectives.

STEP IV. Assess available training resources.

In this step we assess the available and obtainable training resources including: facilities and equipments, instructors and supervisors, training materials such as texts, training aids, tests, instruction sheets, programmed materials.

The selection of the best available personnel for specific instructional assignments is essential for success. Determining how many instructors are needed to accomplish a training objective is difficult, there are many variables in the problem and evaluation of staffing ratios or the quality of instruction is complicated. It is possible, however, to use a standard approach in obtaining facts related to the problem.

A properly prepared and administered budget can help to sharpen decisions on staff, equipment, and facilities when training programs are planned. The budget can be a useful contribution to the effectiveness of the organization and its elements such as the use and conservation of resources.

Materials of this type may include the occupational analysis on which the instructional content is based on other materials such as texts, instruction sheets, programmed materials, training aids, and tests. The quality proper use of such materials is at the core of successful programs.

STEP V. Plan of instruction

A plan of instruction includes decisions regarding objectives, the general approach, the use of resources, and the specific techniques to be used in each phase of instruction. Develop a "blue print" of approach, curriculum, course of study, lesson plans, and training materials for training available personnel to the point of required proficiency, based on a planned sequence of objectives and supporting training activities.

STEP VI. Direct, control and evaluate the process of training

Directing is the process of carrying out the plan. It includes the day-to-day evaluation of the process of training and the corrective actions necessary to reach the objectives. Evaluating a training program is an essential part of the directing function. Program evaluation will provide useful information for guiding and improving training. The essentials of evaluation are trainee motivation, guidance, standards, and evidence of creative effort.

The motivation of trainees is a most essential element in learning, evidence of high motivation is a measure of the quality of the training program.

The application of principles to specific problems under the guidance of the instructor is essential in providing the trainee with a knowledge of results as compared with known standards. Trial and error methods by trainees without such guidance are often frustrating and result in ineffective use of time.

Standards for trainee achievement should be high, yet within reach. If instruction results in satisfaction with relatively low achievement as compared with ability, we have reason to raise the standards and try for improvement.

Evidence of continued effort to evaluate and use new media, to work toward better cooperation and team work with other instructors and staff, to support and give credit for outstanding performance whenever it is found, all indicate instructional effectiveness. The really competent instructor is never satisfied -- he is always attempting to improve his course and his approach. The need for instructor training in the Indonesian Navy was not always understood and in some cases was not adequately supported by the various commands. Then too, many of the instructor training officers lacked sufficient background in practical training methods and not all were successful.

STEP VII. Evaluation of the training program

We evaluate training programs to find out if we are reaching the objectives, or how well the results are filling the training needs. Evaluation records also provide the best possible evidence on which to

make needed changes. We cannot escape the requirement for evaluation, because we must make decisions regarding changes involving both content and method. Evaluation can make in all part of the instructional process. Evaluation should be designed into the total training program. It should start at the time the program is being planned. Rose pointed out, that training evaluation has three phases:⁷⁸

1. Evaluation of the plan of instruction such as instructor qualifications, objectives, course of study and lesson plans, instructional materials, training aids, examinations.
2. Evaluation of the process of instruction and perhaps the administration of the program.
3. Evaluation of the performance of graduates on the job.

Different procedures are required for each phase of training evaluation. Evaluation has value throughout the training program.

A schedule is a type of plan. Goals and objectives define the what of planning, and schedules describe the when. Smooth operation of training and development activity demands careful scheduling.

For simple projects, a straight-forward listing of critical steps and their completion dates will suffice as a schedule. For more complex projects, Gantt charts, block diagrams, or flow charts may be needed, and for very involved projects, network schedules may be required.

⁷⁸ Loc. Cit. No. 77, p. 228.

For the Navy, we must ensure that the personnel do a better job in their assignments. We based the objective of training upon the basis of these tasks. The content of the courses were based upon these objectives.

As a practical example of what kind of investment of time, staff and budget we are suggesting let us look at one possible approach for establishing a training system. The reader will note that some milestones of this time-line overlap. However, to abbreviate any step too much is to court disaster for the entire system. A director of training might consider the following:

ONE POSSIBLE APPROACH

YEARS	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
I. ASSESSMENT OF PERSONNEL	xxxxxx				xxxx	
II. ESTABLISH SKILL REQUIREMENTS		xxxxx			xxx	
III. DETERMINE TRAINING REQ. OBJECT.		xxxxxx			xxx	
IV. ASSESS TRAINING RESOURCES		xxxxxxx			xxxx	
V. DESIGN TRAINING PROGRAM			xxxxx			xxxx
VI. IMPLEMENT & EVALUATE PROCESS OF TRAINING			xxxxxx			xxxx
VII. EVALUATE PRODUCT				xxxxxxx		xxxxxx

The reader will note that when the organization reaches step VII that there is an immediate need to recycle to step I. However, the second iteration should not be as lengthy (providing that most of the training staff is still on board) inasmuch as much of the original work remains relevant. For example, an inventory of training resources will only need minor updating, etc.

X. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. CONCLUSIONS

Recruit training development is much more than a systematic set of plans, programs, and procedures. To design a very effective formal training does not guarantee the best desired performance of new military personnel toward the Navy's job. There is no simple solution to the problems of adjustment encountered by new recruits entering the military services.

Although there has been considerable research done in the areas of recruit training and the changing values, motivations and life-styles of today's youth, recruit training environments remain relatively unchanged, and trainers continue to operate with little understanding of the difficulty of adjustment encountered by recruits entering the military. Most trainers have no knowledge of the above mentioned research, and receive no formal education in individual/group behavior and the psychology of adjustment.

Obviously, there is a need for recruit training command staff personnel to be made more aware of the changing values and needs of the youth of today, the difficulty of their adjustment from civilian to military life, and of the research done in this area, and for training commands themselves, to be continually examined and evaluated in the

areas of recruit requirements and service requirements after training, with a view toward making the organization more realistic and humanistic.

It seems that the effectiveness of training depends on programs which can be carefully developed and followed up on the job. But it is not always so, because this is only an opportunity that will be provided by the organizations for their members.

In the management of training we undoubtedly operate by one system or another. In being systematic we can be conscious of what we are doing and what the effects of different kinds of training effort might be. The cybernetic system has numerous advantages and points up what experienced trainers have realized for a long time.

Research involves the application of logical and reflective thinking to the solution of problems. In the training area such problems include the following; the need for training, the policies and objectives, the content, the methods, the trainers, and the evaluation of training. To solve these problems the training leader should be capable of understanding the nature and the meaning of research and the mechanics of its applications. In this connection one should be alert to the fact that logical thinking proceeds from a felt need to the definition of the problem, to the formulation of hypotheses and the collection of supporting evidence, then to experimentation, and finally to the application of the findings to future uses. It has been pointed out that certain barriers exist which interfere with training efficiency, and these include the attitudes of top management

and the failure of those responsible for training to attain the skills required to conduct research.

Particular learning events and activities must occur in the learning environment in order for instruction to be effective and efficient. There are some general guidelines that are appropriate for most learning objectives; inform the learner of the objectives, provide for active practice, provide guidance for the learner, and provide feedback to the learner.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

To develop training program particularly recruit training in Indonesian Navy, there are some feasible suggestions:

1. Training methods should be examined in light of the changing values, needs, motivations, and levels of education and maturity of today's youth.
2. There should be a concerted effort among recruit trainers to lessen the "culture shock" during the first twenty-four hours or so of recruit training.
3. Only the qualified personnel should be selected for company commander positions. They should be experienced, mature, emotionally stable, people-oriented, and possess a positive attitude toward their duty and the service.
4. Training staffs should undergo a thorough training program that should include not only the duties and responsibilities of a trainer,

but also leadership and individual/group behavior. They should also be made aware of the research that has been done or is being done in the area of military recruit training.

5. Recruiters should investigate a potential recruit background more thoroughly.

6. Training requirements; evaluate the validity of task analysis methods used to determine training requirements. Develop and apply procedures for deriving training objectives from job and task data.

7. Training systems; determine the appropriate content for the selected training systems. Determine the appropriate training equipment to achieve the maximum amount of transfer of training.

8. Training materials; make studies and analyses to select training materials. Evaluate simulators for training in specific skills.

9. Methods of implementing training; compare the effectiveness of self-instructional packages and conventional instructional approaches. Evaluate the effect of different sequences of course content on training outcomes. Develop standard procedures for expressing cost and effectiveness of different instructional strategies.

10. Training management and organization; evaluate the training organization structure and distribution of functions. Apply management sciences to achieve a more effective, efficient, and economical training operation. Evaluate and eliminate unnecessary overlap and duplication of training efforts.

11. A time-line showing milestones of the entire system should be kept updated and used as a training management guide.

12. Feedback between Naval Training Command and Bureau of Naval Personnel should be improved and expedited.

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